

SCHOOL LIFE

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OFFICE OF EDUCATION

In this issue

Rising income—how much for schools?

EUGENE P. McLOONE

The supervisor and mental health

HORACE W. LUNDBERG



DECEMBER 1960

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Office Hours

On the first day of this month the White House announced the resignation of Lawrence G. Derthick, 14th Commissioner of Education. When Dr. Derthick leaves the Office of Education on January 20, 1961, to become assistant executive secretary of the National Education Association, he will have been commissioner for 4 years and 1 month.

THE STAFF OF the Office of Education will remember Commissioner Derthick for many things: for his devotion to public education, for his ability as an administrator and a leader, and, perhaps longest of all, for his cheerful and gracious personality.

School Life particularly salutes Dr. Derthick for his contributions to communication between the public and the Office of Education. He has performed his task of interpreting education at the Federal level with consummate skill and goodwill. He has spread understanding at a time when education has borne the brunt of harsh criticism.

We have in mind particularly the many conferences he has called during the past 4 years—significant conferences, for they have highlighted the importance of consensus on educational problems. They may well have established a pattern for educational meetings—meetings at which educators and professional groups can discuss problems and arrive at common solutions.

Dr. Derthick's legacies to the Office will be many; but *School Life*, because its purpose is communication, chooses this valedictory: We believe that the benefits to the Office from Dr. Derthick's genius for communicating with the public will last long.—EDS.

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE • ARTHUR S. FLEMMING, *Secretary*

OFFICE OF EDUCATION . . . LAWRENCE G. DERTHICK, *Commissioner*

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Brief.

EDUCATION AND GOVERNMENT

Reports

Written sign language

What the deaf "say" in the language of signs can now be written down. William C. Stokoe, Jr., a professor at Gallaudet College, the world's only college for the deaf, using modern linguistic science to analyze the visual language of the deaf, has isolated elements of the signs and given them symbols. He has also designed a new font for the preparation and publication of dictionaries, grammars, and textbooks.

The college has published Dr. Stokoe's report of the first stage of a research program into the language of signs. The book gives a history of the language of signs and its relation to spoken and to manually spelled-out English, and a table of symbols for writing the language. It can be purchased from the Gallaudet College bookstore (7th St. and Florida Ave., NE., Washington 2, D.C.) for \$2 a copy.

Dr. Stokoe's research into the basic elements of the language of signs was supported by Gallaudet College and the American Council of Learned Societies. The National Science Foundation will support research into the grammar and syntax of the language of signs.

Freedom charters in facsimile

Faithfully reproduced in the yellowish tint and faded brown of the original documents, the facsimiles of the three great charters of freedom of the United States—the Declaration of Independence, the Constitution,

and the Bill of Rights—are for sale by the Superintendent of Documents. All are on single sheets ready for framing (the original 4 pages of the Constitution have been reduced to 1 page). A set of all three sells for \$1.35. Single copies of each reproduction may be had for 45 cents. Order from the Supt. of Documents, Govt. Printing Office, Washington 25.

The languages we need to know

How many Americans speak Arabic, Chinese, Hindi-Urdu, Japanese, Portuguese, or Russian? Not many. How many schools offer instruction in these languages? Very few. Does it matter? The answer is certainly yes. Millions of people speak these languages, many of them in new and rising nations. If America is to remain a leader among nations, we must understand these people, we must show them that they are important to us. One way to show them is to know their languages.

Toward the end of 1958 the Commissioner of Education contracted with the American Council of Learned Societies for a study of the languages for which government, business, industry, and education has great need but in which very little instruction is available. He commissioned the study in compliance with title VI of the National Defense Education Act, which authorizes him to contract with institutions of higher learning for the establishment and operation of language and area centers, after determining the languages

critical to national need and yet not available for study.

ACLS has determined that six languages are most critical—Arabic (chief dialects, modern standard stressed), Chinese (chief dialects, Mandarin receiving highest priority), Hindi-Urdu, Japanese, Portuguese, and Russian.

ACLS has recommended 18 other languages for secondary emphasis—

Bengali	Persian
Burmese	Polish
Finnish	Serbo-Croatian
Hebrew	Singhalese
Hungarian	Swahili
Indonesian-Malay	Tamil
Khalkha	Telugu
Korean	Thai
Marathi	Turkish

The Council also lists 59 additional languages requiring special attention:

Afrikaans	Kazak
Albanian	Kazan-Turkic
Amharic	Kpelle
Armenian	Kurdish
Assamese	Laotian
Azerbaijani	Lettish
Berber languages	Lithuanian
Bulgarian	Madurese
Byelorussian	Malagasy
Cambodian	Malayalam
Czech	Mongo
Danish	Mossi
Dutch	Nepali
Estonian	Norwegian
Ewe	Oriya
Greek	Panjabi
Gujerati	Pashto
Hausa	Quechua
Ibo	Rajasthani
Icelandic	Romanian
Ilocano	Shona
Javanese	Sindhi
Kannada	Slovak
Kashmiri	Slovene

Sundanese	Ukrainian
Swedish	Uzbek
Tagalog	Vietnamese
Tibetan	Visayan
Tigrinya	Yoruba
Twi	

Because many of our schools and colleges offer good instruction in French, German, Italian, and Spanish, they are not included in the "critical" list, though we certainly need more good teaching of these languages too, ACLS points out.

Pan American Union Tours

The General Secretariat of the Organization of American States in Washington, D.C., now has a visitors' service which conducts tours of its headquarters, the Pan American Union Building. Known as the House of the Americas, the Union, erected in 1910, is one of the loveliest buildings in a city of beautiful buildings. Visitors particularly love its patio, brightened by Latin American foliage and enlivened by a pair of macaws from Guatemala. Other sights include the Council Chamber, a recent addition equipped with modern language-translation facilities; the Hall of Heroes, featuring marble busts of the heroes of the 21 American Republics; the former Council Chamber, which has brass panels depicting the history of the Americas; and the Hall of the Americas, used for concerts and special events; and two galleries displaying the work of young Latin American artists.

Visitors may tour the Union Mondays through Saturdays, 8:30 a.m. to 4 p.m., for the small admission fee of 10 cents each. Tours may be arranged by writing to the Visitors Service, Division of General Information, Pan American Union, Washington 6, D.C.

Career guidance pamphlets

In whole or in part, the Department of Labor's *Occupational Outlook*

Handbook offers help to the counselor and the student in making plans for the latter's career. The 800 illustrated pages of its latest edition (1959) describe prospects in more than 600 occupations and give such pertinent information as the nature of the work, employment qualifications, location of jobs, earnings, and working conditions. But neither the student nor the counselor need consult the entire volume if he is interested in a specific field only; *Handbook* reports are also available in a series of 89 separate pamphlets, priced at 5 to 20 cents, on different fields of employment.

Titles of the 89 pamphlets are contained in a leaflet, *List of Occupational Outlook Publications, March 1960, Career Information for Use in Guidance*. For a copy, write to the Occupational Outlook Service, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Department of Labor, Washington 25, D.C.

NSF teacher programs for 1961

The National Science Foundation has announced five of its 1961 programs for secondary school teachers of mathematics and science or supervisors of such teachers.

Summer institutes offer courses to teachers wanting to improve subject-matter background or to receive advanced training or training in specialized areas. Recipients will get \$75 a week, \$15 a week for each dependent, and a travel allowance. Applications must be in by Feb. 15, 1961. NSF's list of institutions will be ready about Jan. 1.

Academic year institutes are full-time, year-long programs for teachers interested in improving their knowledge in one discipline or several related disciplines or in updating broad backgrounds. Recipients will receive \$3,000 a year, \$450 for each dependent, and a travel allowance. Application must be made by Jan. 20.

Inservice institutes, designed for local needs, offer teachers without

charge supplemental instruction after school hours or on Saturdays. Recipients will receive travel and book allowances. Institutions conducting the institutes set the deadlines for application. A list of institutions will be available from NSF in April.

Summer fellowships are for individual programs in mathematics and physical and biological sciences at the graduate level. Each applicant plans his program, for 1, 2, or 3 summers, with an adviser at the college to which he is seeking admission. Fellows will receive \$75 a week with a dependent's allowance of \$15 a week. Applicants must be citizens of the United States with at least 3 years of teaching experience in science or mathematics. Awards will be made on a national basis. Information and application materials can be obtained from the American Association for the Advancement of Science, 1515 Massachusetts Avenue, NW., Washington 6, D.C.

Research participation will offer teachers opportunity to work in the laboratory or in the field with experienced scientific investigators during the summer months. Applicants must have a master's degree in science or its equivalent in academic background. There will be about 500 positions available at many institutions for 8 to 10 weeks. A list of institutions will be ready from NSF after Jan. 15.

With the exception of the summer fellowships program, institutions conducting the program will select participants, and it is from them that information and application forms can be obtained. Announcement of programs (except the summer fellowships program) can be obtained by sending a separate postcard for each announcement needed to the National Science Foundation, Washington 25, D.C. NSF requests that you type or print your name and address and the exact title of the announcement.

Do our extra dollars go into education?

FROM 1929 to 1958 per capita income increased from \$703 to \$2,069. For the period as a whole almost half of it went for food, clothing, and shelter. But toward the end of the period, in the postwar years 1947 to 1958, when personal income rose more rapidly than in the prewar years 1929 to 1940, a smaller percentage went for food and clothing and a larger percentage for recreation and other services.

How much of their increased personal income did consumers spend for public elementary and secondary schools during this period? How did their preferences for education compare with their preferences for consumer goods? Using the past as a pattern, can we predict what proportion they will spend for education in the future? Can we estimate how much money will be available for educational expenditures as income rises or falls?

Some of these questions can be answered, at least in part, by applying the concept of elasticity—a tool by which economists measure preferences for consumer goods—to educa-

tion.¹ Economists have made many studies of the relation between income and demand for goods and services; for example, the Department of Commerce measures the responsiveness of personal consumption expenditures to changes in disposable personal income.² But few economists or researchers, and none until recently, have studied the relative movement of educational expenditures and personal income.

There are many reasons for comparing the rate of change in personal income with the rate of change in educational expenditures, as a few researchers are now pointing out.

¹ Consumer demand for goods and services varies with changes in price and income. The degree to which demand responds to changes in prices is known as *elasticity of demand*. If the ratio of total dollar returns at a higher price to total dollar returns at a lower price is greater than 1, demand is *elastic*; if less than 1, it is *inelastic*; and if exactly 1, it is *unitary*.

² *Survey of Current Business*, "Consumer Purchasing and Income Patterns," Washington, D.C., March 1959, gives details on consumption-income ratios and consumer choices in prewar and postwar periods.

Hirsch, for example, who says that the people's attitude toward education (in conjunction with our general tax system) is mainly responsible for the size of the ratio, calls the ratio a useful tool in making projections and determining policy.³ And the Committee on Educational Finance of the NEA says that this ratio "is a way to compare public support of education in different localities."⁴

If, as is suggested, the concept of income elasticity for education can be useful to persons responsible for financing education, we need to know what the elasticity has been over a period of years. For that reason, I am concerned here with the relationship between personal income and expenditures for education in the States during the period 1929-30 and 1958-59, and specifically with measuring the responsiveness of expenditures for education to income changes by applying the concept of income elasticity to education.

The income elasticity for education can be found by comparing the changes in expenditures for education with changes in personal income. If, for example, expenditures for education increased by 10 percent and personal income by 10 percent, the coefficient would be 1.0, or unity. If

Mr. McLoone, assistant specialist in school revenue, Office of Education, is coauthor, with Albert R. Munse, of Public School Finance Programs and, with Francis G. Cornell, of "Finance and Material Management" in the October 1955 Review of Educational Research. In April 1959 he took part in the Universities Committee of the National Bureau of Economic Research Conference on Public Finance: Needs, Sources, and Utilization. Early this year he worked with the National Planning Association in preparing a report for New York State on the financing of higher education in 16 States.



³ Werner Z. Hirsch, "Analysis of the Rising Costs of Public Education," Study Paper No. 4 for Joint Economic Committee Study of Employment, Growth and Price Levels. Washington, D.C., U.S. Government Printing Office, November 1959, p. 5.

⁴ Committee on Educational Finance CEF Report, Washington, D.C., National Education Association, August 1960, No. 2, p. 2.

expenditures for education increased by only 5 percent and personal income by 10 percent, the coefficient of elasticity would be 0.5, or less than unity.

In theoretical discussions of the income elasticity for education, some persons assume that elasticity would be greater than 1.0 or unity:

As students of the social process, we should anticipate that, in general, the income elasticity of demand for education would be in excess of unity; in other words, that schools, both as a consumptive good and as a form of investment in productive capacity, would take a larger proportional, as well as a larger absolute, share of the goods and services produced by an economy whose level of living is rising.⁵

Such persons base their assumption on the needs of the economy and the spending patterns of consumers. As the demand for services increases, more and more skilled workers are needed and more and more should be spent on education as a productive good. At the same time, as income rises, more and more of it becomes available for education as a consumptive good.

Although consumers have almost unlimited choices in spending their income, generally speaking they follow a pattern: As their income rises, their spending habits change. At a subsistence level of income a consumer must spend most of his income on such necessities as food and clothing. Demand for necessary commodities is not greatly affected by changes in prices and income and is therefore considered inelastic.

As his income goes up, a consumer spends a smaller percentage of it on necessary goods and services and therefore has more to spend on other

goods and services. It is generally assumed that education is an elastic service, and therefore, we would expect a consumer with an increased income not only to spend more for education but also to spend a greater proportion of his income on it. But has the income elasticity for education been greater than 1.0?

Expenditures for education have increased. They rose from \$2 billion in 1929-30 to \$13.6 billion in 1957-58. In spite of that large dollar increase, however, education has not fared particularly well in competition for the consumer's dollar. Expenditures for education as a percentage of personal income varied widely during that period: they ranged from 3.7 percent in 1931-32 to 1.6 percent in 1943-44. Since then they have increased to 3.8 percent in 1957-58, but this is barely above the 1931-32 rate. The expected percentage increase did not occur.

There is other evidence, too, that elasticity for education is less than for consumer goods and other Government services. It shows up in at least three of the five recent studies made by four men who have measured the elasticity of education. Brazer,

Fabricant, and Hirsch have found an elasticity for education that is less than unity. (See table 1.)

These five studies drew on both time series data and cross-section data in measuring income elasticity. In education, both methods provide approximately the same value, although they answer slightly different questions. In the time series data the average change in educational expenditures is compared with a 1-percent change in personal income over a period of years but only for one State, city, or school district. In the cross-section data the average change in educational expenditures from one school district, one city, or one State to the next is compared with a 1-percent change in personal income, using data for a year or a set of years for all school districts, cities, or States in the analyses.

Since cross-section data are for the same year, no adjustment needs to be made for a price change. Time series data, however, usually need adjustment for price change. But cost indexes for services do not adequately distinguish price changes from real changes. Nevertheless, unadjusted time series data are useful.

Table 1.—Income elasticity of education as found by 4 researchers over various periods

Researcher	Period	Group	Coefficient of elasticity
Brazer ¹	1952-53.....	Large cities.....	0.73
Fabricant ²	1951-42.....	States.....	.78
Hirsch ³	Selected years, 1900-58..	United States average....	1.09
Hirsch ³	1951-52 and 1954-55....	School districts.....	.56
Hungate ⁴	1951-52.....	States.....	1.04

¹ Harvey E. Brazer, "City Expenditures in the United States," Occasional Paper 66, New York, National Bureau of Economic Research, Inc., 1959, p. 58.

² Solomon Fabricant, "The Trend of Government Activity in the United States Since 1900," New York, National Bureau of Economic Research, 1952, 267 p.

³ Werner Z. Hirsch, "Analysis of the Rising Costs of Public Education," Study Paper No. 4 for Joint Economic Committee Study of Employment, Growth and Price Levels. Washington, D.C., U.S. Government Printing Office, November 1959, 43 p.

⁴ Calculated from Thad L. Hungate, "A New Basis of Support for Higher Education," New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1957, 65 p.

⁵ Procter, Thomson, "Economic Prospects and School Finance I," *School Review*, vol. 60 (October 1952), p. 397.

A citizen as taxpayer and consumer will notice the change in actual expenditure in relation to income, whether the expenditure change is a price change or a real change.

Time series data for the entire period 1929-30 to 1957-58 also show variations in income elasticity for education. (See table 3.) Only nine States reached the ratio of 1.09 that Hirsch found for the Nation as a whole between 1900 and 1958.

For a number of reasons the educational expenditure-income ratios in tables 2 and 3 have limited usefulness. These ratios are computed on the same basis for each year in table 2 and for each State in table 3, but with variables other than income excluded

Table 2.—Sensitivity of educational expenditures to changes in per capita personal income from State to State, selected years, 1929-30 to 1957-58¹

Year	Coefficient of elasticity
1929-30	0.87
1931-32	.82
1933-34	.83
1935-36	1.02
1937-38	.94
1939-40	1.02
1941-42	1.05
1943-44	1.07
1945-46	.41
1947-48	1.08
1949-50	1.05
1951-52	.90
1953-54	.88
1955-56	.82
1957-58	.91

¹ Based on least squares using equation $CE = al^b$, in which CE=current expenditures per pupil in average daily attendance, I=per capita personal income.

Sources:

Biennial Survey of Education (for years indicated) U.S. Office of Education. Washington, D.C.

U.S. Income and Output and the Survey of Current Business, United States Department of Commerce. Washington, D.C., U.S. Government Printing Office.

from consideration. Since the calculation of the income elasticity for education, or for goods and other services, attempts to measure the influence of income alone, other factors in educational expenditures need to be held constant. This has been done in the coefficients of elasticity shown in table 1: the unit of expenditure has been standardized; effects of other variables have been accounted for. The influence of variables such as urbanization, sparsity of population, and the percent of enrollment in high school has been included by some researchers in computing elasticities. In tables 2 and 3 the educational expenditures have been placed on a per pupil basis but other variables have not been considered.

In general, other researchers, including those reported in table 1, have found income to be the most significant variable in their analyses since income represents, wholly or in part, the effect of other factors with which it is highly correlated. An analysis using income alone, however, is not complete since other variables, such as sparsity of population, affect educational expenditures.

The lack of data precludes the use of many variables over the timespan covered in tables 2 and 3. Nevertheless, the educational expenditure-income ratios present useful information on the influence of a basic factor in educational expenditures.

An educational expenditure-income ratio of 1.0 in any community, State, or Nation indicates that the same percentage of per capita resources on the average was available for educating each child during the period reviewed. It summarizes the experience over a period of years. There is no reason to maintain a constant ratio, but it permits a comparison. For the most part the ratios during this period do not show education as receiving an increasing share of the gross national product.

Table 3.—Sensitivity of current expenditures per pupil to changes in per capita personal income, 1929-30 to 1957-58, by State¹

State	Coefficient of elasticity ²
United States average	0.99
Alabama	1.04
Arizona	.89
Arkansas	1.08
California	.81
Colorado	.86
Connecticut	1.05
Delaware	1.05
District of Columbia	1.25
Florida	1.13
Georgia	1.12
Idaho	.82
Illinois	.99
Indiana	.94
Iowa	1.88
Kansas	.88
Kentucky	.94
Louisiana	1.22
Maine	1.07
Maryland	1.27
Massachusetts	1.01
Michigan	.92
Minnesota	.93
Mississippi	.98
Missouri	.96
Montana	.86
Nebraska	.93
Nevada	.72
New Hampshire	.99
New Jersey	.95
New Mexico	.91
New York	1.00
North Carolina	1.15
North Dakota	.67
Ohio	.88
Oklahoma	.97
Oregon	1.09
Pennsylvania	1.04
Rhode Island	1.11
South Carolina	1.06
South Dakota	.70
Tennessee	1.00
Texas	1.00
Utah	.91
Vermont	1.05
Virginia	1.12
Washington	.96
West Virginia	.88
Wisconsin	.97
Wyoming	.85

¹ With the omission of 1943-44 and 1945-46, except for Iowa.

² The elasticity is based on least squares using equation $CE = al^b$, in which CE=current expenditures per pupil in average daily attendance, and I=per capita personal income.

Sources:

Biennial Survey of Education (1928-30 through 1956-58), U.S. Office of Education. Washington, D.C., U.S. Government Printing Office.

U.S. Income and Output and the Survey of Current Business, United States Department of Commerce. Washington, D.C., U.S. Government Printing Office.

The school supervisor's role in mental health

DESPITE what some critics say, educators recognize children's right to be different—in ideals, in personality, in likes and dislikes, and in other ways. They have no desire to mold children to a pattern, certainly not to adjust them to mediocrity. Instead their aim is to teach children, to help them recognize their own worth, to see themselves as they are, with the power to develop into men and women who are sound in both body and mind. Here Dr. Lundberg discusses some of the things supervisors can do to aid teachers—as teachers and not as substitute psychologists or psychiatrists—in promoting sound mental health in the classroom.

OUR SCHOOLS are our second line of defense against mental illness, second only to the home. Unfortunately, there are indications that our defenses need strengthening: 1 out of every 10 Americans suffers mental or emotional illness at some time in his life; from 50 to 70 percent of the persons treated by physicians have emotional complications; and mental or emotional illness, authorities say, is one of the causes of criminal behavior, delinquency, suicide, alcoholism, narcotics addiction, and some divorce cases.

Fortunately, however, our schools have at their disposal the means of strengthening our defenses: Cooperative relations with medical, health, and social welfare

agencies; supporting services from a balanced pupil-personnel department; close association with parents; and sustained contact with children in the classroom. It is in the classroom that schools can improve mental health, and it is there that they must begin.

In the classroom the teacher has an opportunity to observe each child, to learn his needs, and to understand his personality. Through her attitude toward each pupil, her treatment of each pupil, her skill in working with the class as a group and in maintaining harmony, the teacher strengthens or weakens the child's chances of attaining sound mental health. A wise teacher can help each pupil develop his personality through his school experience. As a secondary parental figure, she has an opportunity to insure better social and personality development, especially in the child who does not have a good relationship with his parents.

But teachers should not be asked to work alone. Supervisors and other administrative staff members in elementary and secondary schools can do much to help them, but since the supervisor must assume leadership, it is his work in mental health that I want to discuss here.

The supervisor who realizes that an unhealthy atmosphere in the classroom can adversely affect students' emotional and social adjustment as well as their schoolwork can contribute to the atmosphere of the classrooms of the teachers he supervises. By taking advantage of his opportunities to guide and support teachers, the supervisor can help them create a healthy situation in which children can have sound emotional experiences, find their school life gratifying, improve their social skills, and work at a high academic level.

Furthermore, the supervisor who realizes that behavior tells us something about the child's needs, that it is symptomatic of the personality's struggle to adapt to environment, can contribute to the teacher's understanding of the problems which poor school adjustment reflects. In working with his teachers, the supervisor directs his efforts not only to the problems of the class as a group but also to the teachers' problems with individual pupils. For example, he can encourage teachers to take an impersonal attitude toward a pupil's unacceptable behavior or inadequate performance. Since the supervisor understands behavior and since he is less immediately associated with the child and therefore is not emotionally involved, he is able to help teachers maintain a sense of proportion in

Dr. Lundberg is specialist in school social work services (visiting teachers), in a position recently created in the Office of Education. Before he came to the Office he was associate professor, Graduate School of Social Work, University of Utah. During his years at the university, where he was responsible for the graduate program in several districts in which students were trained in school social work, he had experience with some 20 cooperating agencies.



handling difficult behavior. By helping teachers gain insight and self-assurance, he helps them increase their understanding and, in so doing, reduces the likelihood of their labeling the child as good or bad, a success or a failure, and increases the likelihood that they will find ways to meet the child's need.

With the supervisor's help, teachers can deal with disruptions in the class caused by a pupil's misbehavior or poor work. This is not to say that he condones teachers' lack of control but merely to suggest that he can assist them in finding ways of maintaining control which still meet the pupils' emotional needs.

Teachers generally realize that children differ greatly and that it is important for them to respond to the need of all—the withdrawn, the aggressive, the truant, the slow, and the child who steals. Many teachers understand, without calling on their supervisors, the meaning and seriousness of the symptoms which the withdrawn child reflects, and many also understand aggressiveness, but because they have to deal with aggressive pupils in a group where their influence is great, they often take problems with aggressive children to supervisors.

Differences in children, whether congenital or acquired, may also create problems in teaching, for since teachers have to work primarily with the children as a group they have little time to spend with those so different as to make their adaptation to school difficult. Special problems arise from the range in native endowment; mental retardation or neurological impairment such as epilepsy and cerebral palsy; difficulties of speech, hearing, and sight or other physical disabilities; and the less-often-considered variations of culture, class, and race.

An observant and conscientious supervisor helps teachers recognize these and other problems in teaching, search for causes and explanations of misbehavior and low grades, and work out solutions. He cautions teachers against making diagnosis of mental illness, against trying to substitute for psychiatrists, and encourages them to call on specialists—psychologists and school social workers, for example—to ferret out the meaning of the child's behavior and to accept his emotional reactions and the demands they make on time and imagination.

When a specialist has been called in, the teacher and the supervisor discuss with him the child's behavior and what it tells them about the child's physical, emotional, and intellectual needs. This is the problem-solving method, but whatever method the supervisor follows in aiding teachers, his goal remains the same: to encourage the teachers to accept the individuality of each child, to realize that the self-image is a key element in sound mental health.

School organization and programs have traditionally been directed toward the middle or average child, but

now that nearly all children are in school, many schools need to modify their organization and programs enough to make it possible for all of the children to gain satisfaction from their work. The more a child varies from the average, the more difficult it is for him to adjust to school; and the greater his adjustment, the more the school needs to modify its program. Here the supervisor can lead the way.

For example, he can be of great assistance to school administrators and teachers in providing a program for neurologically impaired children enrolled in regular day schools. Such children are frequently hyperactive, adjust poorly to school and social situations, and tire easily; they require flexible programs. Restricted academic requirements, reduction in the school day, medical care from their family physicians, and understanding teachers may enable them to get some satisfaction from school. Guided by a wise supervisor, teachers will be understanding, will expect varying academic and social development from these and other exceptional children; properly prompted, they will make a creative effort to meet each child's needs.

Contrary to common opinion, retarded, neurologically damaged, and physically disabled children frequently have mental health problems which originate in their not being accepted or in their failure to succeed or to receive some gratification. The school faces a social problem with these children: How to help the child adapt to school and how to help his family accept him as he is. Here, too, the supervisor can help.

Even though parents are not physically present in the classroom, their influence is there. Teachers should consider a child's parents as a possible cause of any protracted problem a child has in school, and in planning an effective solution they should consider the influence of the parent-child relationship. Witmer and Kotinsky say, "Numerous clinical studies testify that there is a close relationship between parent attitudes toward their children and adequacy of their children's social and emotional adjustment."¹

Unless school social work or other special services are available, the teachers and supervisors may have only limited success in modifying the parent-home elements of the child's problem. Yet awareness of parents' influence on their children's behavior aids teachers in understanding it. Educators and social workers have noted the similarity between parents' and children's problems. They often find, for example, that an anxious, socially shy child has an anxious and socially shy mother,

¹ Helen Witmer and Ruth Kotinsky, *Personality in the Making*, New York: Harper and Bros., 1952, p. 48.

usually a mother who wants her child to be different from herself. She may be especially concerned about the characteristics in her child similar to those she herself has struggled with. One case study should illustrate the point.

Mrs. Brisbane insistently referred Helen, her little girl, to the school social work services because she felt that other children were leaving Helen out of their games. In her investigation, the social worker found that Mrs. Brisbane lived near the school and watched the children from her window to see whether they discriminated against Helen; that Mrs. Brisbane felt greater concern than Mr. Wrenn, the teacher, who considered the child's relations with other children as normal for a shy child; and that Mrs. Brisbane herself had been painfully shy and isolated in her own childhood.

Mrs. Brisbane is typical of many parents who try to relive their lives through their children, to gain some gratification they failed to receive in their childhood. It is apparent that she was trying to gain self-assurance through Helen and that her self-concern created an unwholesome atmosphere for her child. How could Helen help feeling her mother's anxiety? How could she keep from thinking that she was different?

Mr. Wrenn, after going over the social worker's report with his supervisor and getting his advice, found many ways of counteracting Mrs. Brisbane's influence. For example, he reassured Helen whenever an opportunity arose, accepted her as she was, and gave her opportunities for social experiences in which she could succeed.

A teacher and his supervisor can relieve such a mother's concern and help her acquire greater stability in handling her problem. Many educators have noticed that some parents either refuse to recognize that they have problems or place them outside themselves—in their neighbors, the police, their children's teachers, or even their own children. Mrs. Brisbane was unconsciously trying to handle her feeling of social inadequacy, which she interpreted as concern about her child's inadequacy. But for the school, she might have perpetuated it in Helen.

Sooner or later every teacher runs into trouble with a pupil who fails in his studies and must be retained in his grade. If the supervisor has done his job well, he has cautioned the teacher about the possibly dangerous effect of retaining the pupil and the need to work with the pupil's parents. Very likely he has emphasized these points: (1) It is vitally necessary for parents to accept their child's retention without reservation so as not to make him a failure in his own eyes; (2) being seen as a failure by his family does a child more harm than continued failure in school; (3) the teacher should exercise great care in weighing the pupil's physical, social, and academic abilities.

Since achievement in school is valued highly in our culture, failure can be emotionally damaging and cause stress. For that reason some parents need help to realize that their expectations or their fears for their child are unwarranted. With support from the supervisor, the teacher may not only convince them of the importance of accepting the child as he is but also gain their support for the school program. At the same time the supervisor can convince the teacher that it is important to draw on family strength, to build on the child's strength, and to accept some of the child's limitations as irreversible; that by working through the child's strength the teacher may make it possible for him to succeed. Every child is entitled to—and for mental health's sake must have—a sense of worth which he can attain through succeeding.

Children are not alike nor are their problems alike. It follows then that education should fit individual needs. If school decisions are made and carried out by persons who know what they are doing and why, each child will be helped to become a self-assured and self-respecting personality. If teachers and supervisors work together in harmony, they will see to it that the child is not belittled; that he is praised when he earns it, criticized in private when he deserves it; that his behavior or work is criticized, not he himself. They will realize that the child cannot be taller, better looking, or brighter than he is; that he *can* behave differently and do better work; that to blame a child for being what he basically is makes the child anxious, frustrates the teacher, and helps no one.

Many teachers and supervisors are working together harmoniously, but not all. There was a time when an acceptable recommendation of a teacher was that "she handles her own problems." Any teacher who needed to ask his supervisor for aid or to refer a child to a social worker considered himself, at least in some ways, as a failure. Today many schools employ—in addition to supervisors—psychologists, counselors, and school social workers, and some make psychiatric services available. Not all teachers, however, have abandoned their old image of a competent teacher. Before they can use the services of a supervisor and other professional workers, they must recognize the sincerity of these workers' purpose and realize that acceptance of their assistance does not brand a teacher as incapable. At the same time supervisors can encourage teachers by presenting themselves as acceptable and safe sources of help—help which teachers can ask for without stigma. With this attitude, supervisors can effectively help teachers promote sound mental health. They can help each teacher they supervise take an objective attitude, maintain a sense of proportion in working with parents and children, and accept the child as he really is rather than as others want him to be.

Community participation in planning school facilities

SCHOOLMEN might as well recognize that community participation in making an educational survey for the purposes of planning school plants can have both advantages and disadvantages, and whether the advantages outweigh the disadvantages is up to the schoolmen. Educational surveys have been used in planning programs for school plants for more than 40 years. They were first widely used in the years immediately following World War I, when school enrollment was increasing rapidly, chiefly because the percentage of children staying on in school, even in high school, was increasing.

Teams of specialists from outside agencies, usually from universities and State departments of education, carried out most of the early surveys. Local citizens, including the local educators, did not usually participate, except as they were requested to provide information. The survey team reported its findings and recommendations to the local school authorities, who used them to develop a program for presentation to the community. Since few architects then specialized in school buildings and most administrators had had no formal instruction in planning and constructing school plants, survey specialists were in a position to make major contributions.

But as time went on school building standards came into common use, and more and more educators took on the task of determining what kind of school plant was needed to serve the curriculum. Gradually the specialist type of survey was replaced by one made by the professional educators of the community. Some communities, but not all, continued to call on outside specialists to participate.

Recently, a third type of survey has evolved—one which requires extensive participation by persons in the community not officially connected with the school. Although the procedure is not entirely new, the extent to which it is being used has been greatly expanded, for administrators

are turning more and more to representatives of the community for advice and recommendations. Specialists are still being called in, of course, and educational specifications are still being checked by professional educators, so that today's survey is likely to include elements of the three types I have mentioned; but community participation is its outstanding feature. Because the public is now very much concerned about our public schools such participation is now widespread. Before going on to the techniques by which the largest value can be secured, I want to mention several reasons for the increased concern.

For one thing, the level of education of the general public has steadily risen over the years and now the average adult has attended school several years longer than his parents or grandparents did. Furthermore, the public is more familiar with the educational program and more concerned with its efficiency. Both advantages and problems follow. People who believe that they themselves were benefited by an educational program will try hard to provide a program for the present generation of students as good as the one they had or even better. And the more education they have, the more likely they are to question the educators on the offerings of their schools.

The local curriculum has traditionally been determined by State requirements and recommendations modified by the community to meet local interests. Now, however, a sizable number of persons throughout the country are demanding that schools do more than meet minimum State requirements, and their demands are stimulating many communities to take greater interest in their educational programs.

Another reason for community concern for education is the general trend toward more government (local, State, and Federal) services—highways, public utilities, public health, social security programs, and defense as well as for education. Not only has a much higher percentage of national income been diverted to governmental uses in recent decades, but the competition for governmental funds at all levels has been very much intensified. Where education was, at one time, by far the greatest governmental cost to most taxpayers, it now is only one of several. Because demands for funds have been growing, including the demands for education, citizens are now more inclined than formerly to evaluate critically what government agencies are doing with tax funds.



Dr. Stoneman, specialist in school plant administration, recently came to the Office of Education from the University of Nebraska, where for 15 years he was head of the educational surveys service. He is the coauthor of several books on school plant standards.

The school administrator should remember these reasons for public interest as he calls on local citizens to participate in school surveys, for he may use them to the school's advantage.

There are several advantages to be gained from community participation in planning a school plant. For one thing, the community may acquire a broader understanding of the whole educational program since the survey group will review the curriculum, evaluate the existing plant, and examine the administrative organization before it begins to plan a new plant. Information of this sort should be disseminated in several ways, but citizen participation in a carefully planned and well-managed school survey program is an effective one.

As they participate in a school survey, people are usually inclined to feel personally involved. The proposed program becomes their own, and they are inclined to defend and support it against its critics. Consequently, the more people involved, the better for the school. From the administrator's point of view, too, widespread participation by community members may add to his own knowledge of the resources and needs, both human and material, within the district he serves.

As in other human relations, there are certain dangers in community participation in school-plant planning. For example, there may be a question, unless it is clearly resolved, about just how much authority the several committees and organizations have. Basic administrative policy requires that it be made clear to all participants that final decisions will be made by the legally constituted authorities, generally the board of education or by the voters in accordance with legally prescribed procedure. Consequently the action taken by an appointed, or selected group of participating citizens is advisory only. This distinction can be clearly made in stating policy, but making it clear in practice requires great skill and tact. For example, an official may antagonize persons who have given the survey much in time and effort by letting them get the impression, inadvertently of course, that their recommendations have not been seriously considered.

Because participants in a survey may influence the community to accept or reject the finding, each one should be carefully selected. Here are a few points school boards or school officials might keep in mind:

- ▶ Try to get a truly representative group.
- ▶ Remember that an obviously stacked committee can do more harm than good.
- ▶ Do not appoint anyone who would feel the appointment an imposition.
- ▶ Be sure not to bypass influential citizens with real interests in the activity.

It is sometimes difficult, if not impossible, to secure a

truly representative committee, especially when a building program is in the early stages, when the purpose is to replace outmoded facilities in a community that feels no particular population pressure, or when community leaders have directed their efforts toward keeping local taxes low without regard to educational needs. In such situations the administrator can begin by working with representatives of minorities, and even with their help it may take a long time to convince enough people of school needs to insure a fair hearing for any suitable proposal.

When officials invite the community to participate in school-plant planning, they should see that full publicity is given to the contributions citizens make. A community survey report should be presented as just that, not as the product of a specialist, the local administrator, or the board of education, no matter how much such persons may have contributed.

Assuming that the administrator has kept his board, staff, and public informed up to the time the formal survey is begun, there will be no sudden shock to the community. Means of keeping them up to date on school plant conditions and needs are available to him: through timely and thorough reports to his board and faculty at their meetings and to local citizens over regular channels of communication. The available means of communication vary among communities, and administrators in some communities will be required to use considerable ingenuity in getting facts to the public. When local communication mediums are on the side of educational improvement the administrator is fortunate.

A survey committee in which local citizens participate should have information on at least five subjects, for it should be able to evaluate the strength and the weakness of the school system and the economic and social conditions of the supporting school district.

First, each survey should have information on the local administrative organization, that is, on the school district to be served and the administrative framework set up to carry on the school business. The committee should be told when any changes in administrative organization are being planned, either in district boundaries or in responsibilities of the staff, for such changes may affect building plans.

Second, the committee should be well informed on local and regional population trends. The future population of a community can never be determined with complete accuracy because unpredictable developments may change apparent trends. The increased birthrate of the past 15 years has affected and will continue to affect school-plant needs. Yet there are many communities in which pupil population remained static or even declined during that

Continued on page 14

Administration of title III: The man and the job

Back in 1958-59, when the State educational agencies, under the stimulus of the National Defense Education Act, were planning their programs for improving instruction in science, mathematics, and modern foreign languages in the public schools (under title III of the act), most of them designated one person to bear the principal responsibility for getting the machinery started and keeping it going. This was a new kind of job, one for which there were few guiding precedents; and at the outset it was hard to say exactly what qualifications a man most needed for it. Now, however, with 2 years of experience behind us, we are better qualified to describe, as Mr. Crummel does here, both the job and the kind of person who does it.

THE TYPICAL State administrator of title III programs, at the time he was named for the post, already was a staff member of his State department of education, and therefore was already familiar with the State's instructional program and administrative procedures. He is a former teacher, school administrator, or supervisor. He has an undergraduate major or minor in one of the three subjects—science, mathematics, or modern foreign languages—and a master's degree in school administration.

He was chosen for his ability to manage programs, direct activities, and supervise others, for his seasoned perspective and mature insight and imagination. Because in most States he was among those who wrote the State plan, organized the staff, and set the program machinery in motion, he is well fitted to be the leader of the State's task force for title III and a partner in its operations.

Mr. Crummel, an assistant program specialist in the Aid to State and Local Schools Branch, has been a teacher, a school administrator, and a staff assistant to the president of the American Council on Education. He is the author of a statistical study on the "Development of Higher Education in the United States, 1900-1955," published in the Educational Record, October 1957.



The title III administrator is many persons at once. He is an organizer, drawing together the resources within the State for operating the program. He is a coordinator of plans and programs. He is an expeditor, working to make the job of his staff easier. He is a supervisor of both program and fiscal operations, relating one to the other for the sake of efficiency. And he is a liaison officer and a public-relations expert, dispensing information and attracting other agencies in the State to the support of the program.

He is also a planner. He must project his thinking beyond his current activities to the long-range consequences of the program. Yet he must never lose sight of the present moment. To make his program operate effectively he must know thoroughly both its general and specific aspects. He must know, for instance, the present status of State educational programs; the current economic, political, and educational trends in the State; the State's human and physical resources for education; its educational goals and how they may best be attained; and the structure of the State educational agency—the functions of its divisions and its staff assignment. To this general knowledge he must add a specialist's knowledge about the National Defense Education Act, the Federal regulations for title III, and the State's program under that title. He must keep up with Federal and State policy bulletins, official correspondence and pertinent documents, and fiscal aspects of the program.

Finally, he is an evaluator. Every year, like every other administrator of an NDEA program, he must appraise the work that has been done and measure the accomplishments and shortcomings of the program. This is a task which requires him to—

Stimulate supervisors and others working under the program to look at their activities in the light of the goals of the State plan.

Evaluate the total title III program and activities in in terms of the State plan.

Seek, with his staff, ways of cutting redtape and otherwise streamlining the mechanics of State operation.

Encourage his staff to seek out and utilize good teaching techniques and materials.

Encourage educator and layman alike to judge the effect of the program at both State and local levels.

Determine whether title III funds are giving maximum benefits.

Measure the effect of title III activities on the total educational program of the State, the extent to which they meet the total State needs.

Determine to what extent instruction in science, mathematics, and modern foreign language is being strengthened as a result of title III.

Seek ways of improving the program, overcoming its weakness, increasing its strength.

As a leader of his State's program, the title III administrator is the focal member of the State staff for working with public school officials in his own and other States

and with officials of the Federal Office of Education. In this capacity he routes, through the chief State school officer, all official reports and requests, State plans, and information on the accomplishments and impact of title III in the State. From these reports the U.S. Commissioner, the Congress, the educator, and the public can determine the importance of Federal-State programs and keep abreast of national educational needs for science, mathematics, and modern foreign languages.

Above all, the success of the State administrator of the title III program depends, as does the success of all good administrators, on his ability to look ahead and plan ahead in cooperation with an alert and imaginative staff.

Community participation—Cont. from p. 12

period. Such communities do need and will continue to need school plants. Despite the unpredictables, in most communities a committee can analyze economic conditions sufficiently to make reasonable estimates of the pupils to be housed within the next few years, but it should not overlook the possibility of exceptional developments.

Third, the committee should be familiar with something closely associated with population trends—the community's pattern of development. In most communities the committee would have little trouble: the pattern is clear and easily discernible. In some, however, it is not easy to identify—in rapidly growing suburban areas, for example, or in declining rural areas, rural areas suddenly industrialized, or areas where unexpected activities are taking place, such as the Federal Government's projects at Cape Canaveral and Los Alamos.

Fourth, the committee needs information on financial conditions of the district on which the local school building depends. It should analyze local ability to support an educational program and any State and Federal support which is available or is likely to become available. State aid for school building construction is a significant factor in many States, and Federal aid, even under existing legislation, is available in numerous federally affected districts. Financial information is a vital part of any adequate survey report, and will carry much weight locally when it is accumulated and reported by local citizens whose financial acumen is respected.

Fifth, the committee must have information on State and local building codes and standards, for the building planned must meet requirements set up by various authorities. In many districts fire and safety regulations are set up and enforced by public agencies that have no other educational responsibilities. In others, the plans for school facilities must be approved by State educational au-

thorities. A survey committee not aware of such requirements can do much harm to a building project.

The part that a community survey committee can play is determined to a considerable extent by the size of the community. A community so small that most or all of its members are acquainted with each other presents a very different situation from a community so large that few of its members are widely known except by position and reputation. Obviously, there are communities of various sizes between these two extremes.

When planning to follow up on a community survey, the administrator should make certain that the information used will meet several criteria.

The first criterion is that the sources of information be accepted as authentic by members of the citizens' committee. The administrator may have information from private sources in which he has confidence, but which he cannot publicize because it is confidential. Moreover, private sources, though available, may be unacceptable to many citizens for fear that they may be prejudiced.

The second criterion is that the information gathered should be accurate or as nearly so as possible. Data that can be successfully challenged publicly may destroy confidence in the total report.

A third criterion is that the information sought should be readily accessible. To encourage a committee to try to get information which is not accessible to them may not only dishearten them but militate against public acceptance of the committee report. The information on which the survey is based should be obtained in such a way as to contribute to the total public relations program of the school. Sometimes a specialist can determine the educational needs of a community just as accurately in a few days as a committee of citizens can in several months. Even so, the administrator may be wise to wait for the report of his community committee and use it as the basis for his planning.

Costs of schools in 1970

Some projections

A number of estimates have been made of what the current expenditures of public elementary and secondary schools will be in 1969-70. All show increases, ranging from about \$5 to \$11 billion. The \$6 billion difference results from the difference in the assumptions underlying the projections.

By and large, two methods have been used in estimating costs: The teacher-salary method and the per-pupil-cost method. (See tables 1, 2, and 3.) Under the teacher-salary method, estimates are made in this way: The estimated enrollment (based

on population forecasts) is divided by the number of pupils per teacher (a ratio of pupils to teachers is assumed, for example, 30 to 1 in elementary schools and 26 to 1 in secondary schools), to get the estimated number of teachers that will be needed; and the number is multiplied by an assumed average salary.

Other components of the total estimated cost have been filled in on the basis of teacher-staffing and -salary patterns. For example, the Committee on Economic Development has projected nonpersonnel costs as a constant amount per instructional

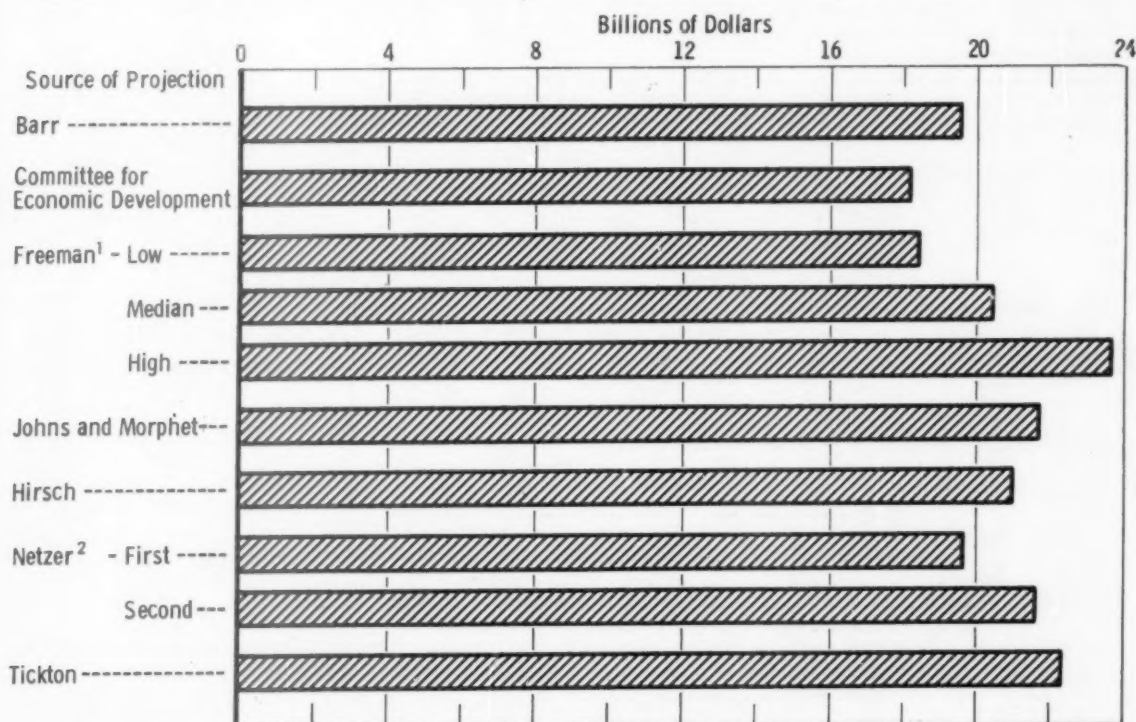
Table 1.—Current expenditures for public elementary and secondary schools for 1969-70: Some projections, all adjusted to 1957-58 dollars and per-pupil expenditures and prices

[In billions of dollars]

Source	1969-70 projection
Barr.....	19.5
Committee for Economic Development...	18.1
Freeman ¹	18.4; 20.4; 23.6
Johns and Morphet....	21.7
Hirsch.....	21.0
Netzer ²	19.6; 21.6
Tickton.....	22.3

For footnotes, see chart below.

staff member, and all staff salaries at the rate of increase it has assumed for teachers' salaries.



¹ Three projections have been adjusted from 1955-56 price level to 1957-58 price level. ² Two variations of high model: In first, per-pupil cost adjusted for price change; in second, percentage increase assumed from new base figure.

Current expenditures for public elementary and secondary schools for 1969-70: Some projections.

Under the per-pupil-cost method, figures based on various trends or assumed standards of expenditures are applied to cost per pupil day or per pupil school year in a base period. This estimated per-pupil cost is then multiplied by projected school enrollment figures or attendance figures. Table 3 outlines the specific assumptions on which each of the projections is based.

In addition to enrollment and teacher salary levels, other factors, too, are considered in one or the other

method. Among them are fringe benefits supplementing salary, length of school year, concentration of school population, administrative staffing patterns, organizational arrangements of schools and school systems, use of laboratory and other teaching equipment, distribution of free books and other school supplies, bus transportation, and auxiliary services. These are specific factors in school costs. Others that originate in the general economic and social conditions under which schools op-

Table 2.—Selected projections of public elementary and secondary school expenditures¹
[In billions of dollars]

Source and item projected	1960	1964	1965	1968	1970
Barr					
Operating costs plus capital		\$19.4	\$19.2	\$22.4	\$24.7
Operating costs		16.9	17.9	20.7	22.9
Current costs		14.4	15.3	18.0	20.1
Committee for Economic Development					
Operating plus capital costs	\$15.1	18.1	18.9	19.7	21.1
Operating costs	11.7	14.5	15.4	17.0	18.3
Current costs	11.4	14.1	14.8	16.4	17.7
Eckstein					
Current costs (medium)		17.5		19.3	
Freeman					
Current plus capital costs {Lowest					14.6
{Medium					18.7
{Highest					26.6
Current costs {Lowest					11.5
{Medium					15.6
{Highest					23.5
Johns and Morphet					
Revenue requirements					21.2
Hirsch					
Current costs plus debt service {Low	11.8		13.8		
{Medium	12.7		17.4		
{High	13.8		22.8		
Netzer (local school systems)					
Current plus capital costs {Low					15.4
{Medium					18.6
{High					23.5
Current costs {Low					12.9
{Medium					15.6
{High					20.2
Tickton (regular day schools)					
Operating plus capital costs {Low			13.4		13.4
{Medium			18.3		21.2
Operating costs {Low			11.0		11.4
{Medium			15.9		19.2

¹ See table 3 for methods and assumptions as well as price level and base of model.

Table 3.—Methods

Estimator and method used	Year
PER PUPIL COST METHOD	
Barr	195
Johns and Morphet	195
Hirsch	195
Netzer	195
Tickton	195
TEACHER-SALARY METHOD	
Committee for Economic Development	195
Eckstein	Dec de
Freeman	195

¹ All except Barr and Hirsch made their own s

and assumptions used in eight estimates of education costs (current or operating) in 1970

level	Base of model ¹	Increase in cost per pupil			Increase in teacher's salary			Other factors
		Low	Medium	High	Low	Medium	High	
dollar.....	1951-58 Office of Education current expenditure per pupil and <i>Census of Governments, 1957</i> , debt service.	Logarithmic trend of 1951-52 to 1957-58 with 1 percent added.			From 63 percent to 70 percent of total expenditures.		
dollar.....	NEA revenue estimates, 1957-58, 1949-50 to 1955-56 Office of Education revenue per pupil	4.7 percent per year in constant dollars (1949-57 rate of increase)					Increase in school attendance: from 80.8 percent of the population aged 5 to 17 in 1957-58 to 83 percent in 1970-71.
dollar.....	1900-58 Office of Education current expenditure minus auxiliary services plus debt services per pupil per day (selected years).			No increase	3 percent per year	6 percent per year	Length of school term: Estimate: low, no increase; medium, 3 percent; high, 6 percent. Shift to urban areas: Estimate: Low, no increase; medium, 52 percent over the period. High school enrollment: Estimate: low, no increase; medium and high, 23 percent over the period.
dollar.....	<i>Census of Governments, 1957</i> , expenditures per pupil	1957 level	20 percent over period	60 percent over period	Included in per pupil cost		
dollar.....	Office of Education financial statistics and his own estimates for 1955-56	1955-56 level	1952-56 rates of increase: about 70 percent	52 percent rise over the period			Instructional staff-pupil ratio: Various combinations with salaries.
9 dollar.	NEA estimates of school statistics, 1958-59			2 percent per year			Instructional staff-pupil ratio: Stable at 1958-59 ratio. Shift in school organization and enrollment to junior high school: Increase by 0.5 percent per year. High school enrollment: Projected separately.
per 1958	NEA estimates of expenditures, 1957-58 and 1958-59			2 percent per year.....			Instructional staff-pupil ratios: Stable at 1958-59. Increase in school attendance: 1950 patterns by age.
6 dollar.	Office of Education (current expenditure 1955-56); his own estimate of capital outlay and debt service.			No increase	30 percent	50 percent	Instructional staff-pupil ratio: Various ratios from 1929-30 ratio of 1 to 29.2 to a ratio of 1 to 23.

ool enrollment estimates from Bureau of Census population projections. Barr used USOE enrollment estimates, and Hirsch used NEA estimates.

erate include the distribution of functional responsibilities among Federal, State, and local governments; general price movements and productivity gains; and distribution of income among families, and their standards of consumption of both publicly and privately produced goods and services.

The estimates are derived by different methods but from common assumptions. For example, the projections uniformly take account of the estimated increase in numbers of children in the population, which in turn are based on Bureau of Census population projections. Furthermore, most of the estimates distinguish between elementary and secondary school populations since the per-pupil cost is greater in secondary schools.

All estimates of school expenditures are not only based on Census Bureau population projections, but also assume a stable price level. Even minimal projections of school outlays consistent with general price stability must make allowance for increased salaries so that schools will be able to hold their own in recruiting for staff. Several of the low estimates in table 2 make no allowance for these factors, and these low estimates have been omitted from table 1.

Because we lack standards and tools for measuring productivity changes in school systems, we explain salary changes at constant price levels in terms of competitive recruitment. In education there is no physical unit of output as there is in industry—tons of steel or number of automobiles, for example. Perhaps as schools increase their use of the new teaching devices someone can design other units or standards of productivity.

The projections uniformly assume specific political, social, and economic conditions: The world situation will remain as it is now; employment will continue at a high level; the distribution of functions among governments—Federal, State, and local—

will be generally unchanged; and the gross national product will increase at rates of from 3 to 5 percent. However, rates of economic change affect both the adjustment in salary levels to maintain competitive salary payments and the resources from which school outlays will be financed.

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- Eckstein, Otto. "Trends in Public Expenditures in the Next Decade." New York, Committee for Economic Development, April 1959. 56p.
- Freeman, Roger A. "School Needs in the Decade Ahead." Washington, D.C., Institute for Social Science Research, 1958. 273p.
- Hirsch, Werner Z. "Analysis of the Rising Costs of Public Education." Study Paper

MEDIA RESEARCH REPORTS

ON PAGE 31 of this issue, *School Life* brings up to date a list of cooperative research reports on loan at 58 libraries throughout the country. Now, in addition to these reports, six others are similarly available: they are the reports on the first research projects to be completed under title VI-A of the National Defense Education Act—all on educational uses of communications media. The 58 lending libraries were listed in the October 1960 *School Life*.

In the 2 years since NDEA was passed, the Office of Education has contracted for 115 research projects in the educational uses of communications media. Federal support of these projects will total \$7.5 million. Reports on projects will eventually find their way to the library shelves. As they do, *School Life* will announce them. The first six are these:

Chance, Clayton W. Experimentation in the Adaptation of the Overhead Projector . . . in Teaching Engineering Descriptive Geometry Curricula. University of Texas, Aug. 1960. Grant No. 741023.

Durost, Walter N. When Is September? Pinellas County Board of Public Instruction, Aug. 1960. Grant No. 708004.

Garry, Ralph, and Edna Mauriello. Summary of Research on "Parlons Français." Massachusetts Modern Language Project, Aug. 1960. Grant No. 719021.

McLuhan, H. Marshall. Understanding Media. National Association of Educational Broadcasters, Aug. 1960. Grant No. 711058.

Popham, W. James, Tape Recorded Lectures for the College Classroom—An Experimental Appraisal. Kansas State College of Pittsburg, Aug. 1960. Grant No. 715108.

Popham, W. James, and Joseph M. Sadnavitch. The Effectiveness of Filmed Courses in Public Secondary Schools. Kansas State College of Pittsburg, Aug. 1960. Grant No. 714030.

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By Emery M. Foster, chief, Research Studies Section; Selma J. Mushkin, economic consultant; and Eugene P. McLoone, assistant specialist in school revenue.

School health the world over

Teacher organizations in 60 countries this year sent representatives to a conference in the Netherlands to consider the school's proper relation to the child's health—and to bring back some recommendations. The recommendations they brought back are reprinted at the close of Miss Schneider's article; and between the lines the perceptive reader will see again the specific needs Miss Schneider points out below as she reviews what schools in different parts of the world are doing—or not doing—for the health of the children in their charge.

PROSPECTS for the health of children all over the world are brighter now than they were a year ago. This year 500 teachers in 60 countries carry fresh in their memories—and share with their colleagues and countrymen—the knowledge and inspiration they got at a great international conference devoted entirely to this one theme: *Child health and the school.*

The conference was the 1960 Assembly of Delegates of the World Confederation of Organizations of the Teaching Profession (WCOTP), which convened in Amsterdam, July 30, to concentrate all its thought and planning on such topics as health education, healthful school living, health services, and teacher health. Delegates came prepared to understand each other's problems: well in advance of the conference they had had an opportunity to study a report synthesizing information supplied by 34 member organizations in 29 countries—information they had supplied in response to an inquiry developed with



Miss Schneider, specialist for health, physical education, recreation, and safety, Elementary Schools Section, Office of Education, was one of the consultants at the conference she writes about here. Not only was she one of the persons responsible for formulating the questionnaire which WCOTP sent to all

its member organizations in preparation for the conference, but from the information the questionnaire brought in she compiled the "Synthesis Report," which became a basic text for the conferees and is the source of many of the facts she gives us here.



UN PHOTO

Around the world, shortages of many kinds . . .

the help of experts from the World Health Organization, UNESCO, UNICEF, the Food and Agriculture Organization, and the International Council on Health, Physical Education, and Recreation of WCOTP.

As the synthesis report showed and the conference sessions subsequently reemphasized, both likenesses and differences abound in the way children's health is looked out for in different parts of the world. Take, for instance, the 29 countries that responded to the inquiry in time to be included in the synthesis report. Twenty-one of them have some kind of planned program for examining children and determining their health needs, but the others have none; eighteen keep cumulative health records; eight provide medical treatment; two, dental treatment. In 17 of these countries the legal role of the school is defined by national authority; in the others, by local or regional authority.

These 29 countries, though they were hardly half the number at the conference, represented all sides of the world. They included, for instance, Northern Ireland and Thailand, Panama and New Zealand, Gambia and India, Korea and Canada. What they reported, therefore, whether on schoolhouses, school lunches, the teaching of health, or even trends, makes a picture that probably is fairly representative of the world as a whole.

School buildings. The world over the problem is the same—not enough school buildings.



UN PHOTO

... shortages of schoolhouses, of facilities ...

If the buildings reported to be unhealthful were torn down, the problem would only be compounded. Despite the valiant efforts evidently being made to provide all children with school buildings that are healthful, safe, and conducive to learning, most countries still find themselves far short of this goal. The Malta Union of Teachers reports, for example, that even though the island has accentuated its school building program in recent years and constructed modern schools complete with sanitary amenities, hundreds of children continue to receive their education on makeshift premises and unhygienic classrooms and surroundings. The enormity of the problem in Italy, for example, is stated concisely in some statistics supplied by the Federazione Nazionale Insegnanti Scuole Medie: If all children between the ages of 11 and 14 years are going to attend school as the new law has proposed, 70,000 classrooms will be needed. Children come to school now in two shifts in antiquated buildings.

Length of school day. The number of hours children spend in school is influenced by many factors, but chiefly by shortages of one kind or another—of teachers, schoolhouses, funds—and by the prevailing educational philosophy. Variations from country to country are wide. For 7-year-olds, for example, the range is from 16 hours a week to 28; for 11-year-olds, from 20 to 29; and for 15-year-olds, from 25 to 28. The following are examples of where the two extremes, as well as a middle ground between them, can be found:

7-year-olds: 17–17½ hours a week in Gambia, Northern Ireland, Nyasaland; 25–26 hours in Canada, England, India, Korea, New Zealand, Panama, Scotland, Thailand (in one of its two alternate plans);

27½ to 28 hours in Malta and Thailand (in the other of its plans).

11-year-olds: 20–22½ hours in Gambia and Northern Ireland; 25–29 hours in England, Ghana, India, Italy, New Zealand, Switzerland; 32 hours in the Philippine Republic.

15-year-olds: 25 hours in Gambia and England; 30 hours in France, Iran, Japan, Netherlands, Scotland, Thailand, United States, West Germany; 38 hours in Korea.

School meals. The basic foods vary with the habits and staples of the country, but everywhere an attempt is made to serve balanced, attractive, nutritious meals. In European countries the staple is generally potatoes, with soup, meat pie or stew, a vegetable, and fruit or pudding; in Yugoslavia, rice or a bread dish, with yogurt, jam, tea or coffee; in Asian countries, rice with fish and beans; in Ghana, rice, stews made with palm oil, vegetables, and beans. Most countries serve bread and butter.

There is evidence that school meals have helped both children and their parents to overcome prejudices against nutritious foods not ordinarily included in the family diet, such as milk and green vegetables. Certain foods are said to be more widely used now than heretofore in several countries—bread in Japan, for instance, and milk and cheese in Italy. If this is so, it may be due in part to the influence of the school feeding program. The balanced diet children in Panama get in school has taught many mothers how to make more use of the natural products of the community. But whether teachers generally take advantage of the opportunities in the school meals program for teaching nutrition cannot be inferred from the reports.

Physical education. In all reporting countries, schools include physical education in their programs. In general, they emphasize good body development, habits of exercise, alternation of sedentary work with physical activity, skill in games and sports, and an appreciation of the contribution exercise can make throughout life to personal well-being and enjoyment of leisure.

Health care. The amount of health care available to children depends heavily on where they live. In eight European countries and in New Zealand and Hongkong there are compulsory or nationally subscribed health insurance plans designed to provide for the total population. In six other countries, apparently, lack of health personnel, facilities, and supplies sharply limits the care given to large numbers of children. In between these extremes are the several countries that feel that the health care of children is the responsibility of parents and not of government. These countries believe that the school's role is to inform parents about the child's needs and to

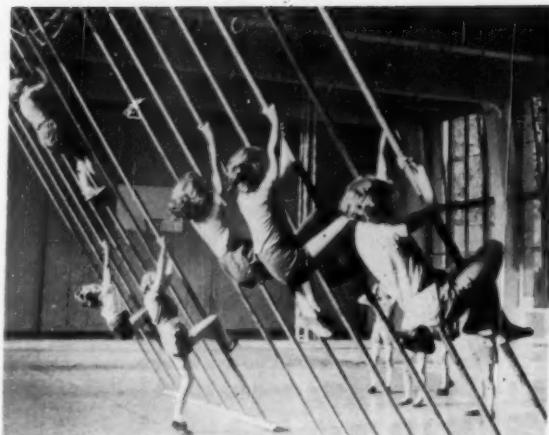
urge them to provide the necessary care. In some of these countries, voluntary health (or sickness) insurance plans are in effect. In all countries care is provided for indigent children, through government or voluntary funds.

Health teaching. Health is taught at all levels, but much more attention seems to be given to it in primary schools than in the later school years.

Programs for 7-year-olds usually include nutrition, personal health habits with special emphasis on cleanliness, accident prevention, prevention and control of disease (sanitation), the value of exercise and recreation, dental health, sleep and rest, and environmental health.

Eleven-year-olds study nutrition, body function and care, accident prevention and traffic safety, prevention and control of disease, dental health, value of exercise and rest, and alcohol education; 15-year-olds study traffic safety, nutrition education including food for the family, body function and care, community health, the value of exercise and recreation, sex education, environmental health, the effect of habit-forming substances (tobacco, alcohol, and narcotics), and mental and emotional health.

Problems. Problems facing the schools in every country have this in common: *Shortages.* Shortages of qualified personnel: of medical doctors, dentists, nurses, techni-



UNESCO PHOTO

. . . and the building of strong bodies.

cians, and other health workers; of psychologists and social workers; of school administrators and teachers. Shortages in the environment: of health services and facilities; of safe, sanitary, and healthful school buildings; of uncrowded classrooms; of home conditions that foster mental and emotional well-being; of adequate food to sustain health. Shortages in understanding: of actual health needs; of the relation between a child's health and his well-being throughout life, the relation between health and learning; of the power of education in combatting ignorance and superstition; of the tremendous contributions schools can and must make to the improvement of child and community health. Shortages of support: in cooperation among persons, departments, and agencies responsible for child health; in the funds needed to bring about improvement. This list is formidable enough to discourage us, but when the well-being of children and the improvement of the world's population is at stake, discouragement and procrastination have no place. It is encouraging that the associations responding to the inquiry reflect a widespread awareness of the problems and a conviction that the school shares in the responsibility of working toward the solution of some of them.

Accomplishments. Many of the tangible gains in the different countries are attributable to teachers and schools. Five stand out in the reports received by WCOTP: (1) Better and expanded health services and school feeding programs have enormously improved child health. (2) Health teaching and health by example have improved personal, family, and community conditions. (3) There has been much profitable collaboration among persons responsible for child health. (4) School buildings have been constructed and renovated with an eye to the health and well-being of both children and teachers.



UNICEF PHOTO

. . . but, everywhere, ardent effort for health . . .

Resolutions Adopted by the 1960 Assembly of Delegates

I. This Assembly of Delegates of the World Confederation of Organizations of the Teaching Profession affirms that the right to live and to live a healthy life is a fundamental prerequisite to all other human rights. This right means not only the absence of disease or other handicaps but the enjoyment of a state of physical, mental and social wellbeing. The Assembly welcomes the principles formulated by the United Nations in its Declaration of the Rights of the Child and declares "that every child shall be given opportunities and facilities by law and by other means to enable him to develop physically, mentally, morally, spiritually and socially in a healthy and normal manner and in conditions of freedom and dignity" and

HEALTH EDUCATION

1. There must be health education for all children, from nursery school upwards.

2. (a) Health education in schools should, as a general rule, be the responsibility of the school teachers.

(b) Consequently, health education must be a compulsory part of teacher training; in-service education in health education should be provided through periodic in-service programs such as seminars, workshops, and refresher courses.

3. Teachers, while retaining their full authority as educators, must be able to rely on the full cooperation of health services in carrying out their mission.

4. The school should also seek the assistance and the collaboration of parents to develop a sense of responsibility in the family for the health of the child.

5. Equipment, such as handbooks and audiovisual aids, for making health teaching more practical and effective must be made available.

6. Children should have the benefit of the health services at all times including holidays.

7. Sex education is closely associated with religious, moral, and social questions. While recognizing that the primary responsibility in this regard rests with the parents, the Assembly feels that the school should assume its share, giving due regard to the ethical and moral aspects of the problems.

8. The school health education program should include

instruction in the prevention of and protection from accidents and hazards.

9. Every school should provide for an adequate program of physical education for all its children. In the primary school, physical education should mainly be the responsibility of the class teacher with the assistance of a specialist when necessary. Adequate time should be provided for physical education activities.

HEALTHFUL SCHOOL LIVING

1. The problem of school buildings causes great concern almost everywhere. We note several basic principles:

(a) School buildings should be planned to provide for the full development of the total program of the school—studies and services.

(b) Teachers and teachers' organizations should be given opportunities to participate in the development of the school program and in the planning of the school building at all stages.

(c) The authorities responsible for schools should provide the necessary school buildings with adequate equipment and facilities. The planning should have regard for practical as well as aesthetic principles. New schools should be situated in hygienic surroundings and serve as models for healthful living.

2. Because all that takes place in the school has a far-reaching effect upon the physical and mental health of the child, attention should be given to the following:

(5) Teachers have been helped to do a better job of sharing in the responsibility of improving health.

Trends. Most of the associations proudly report hopeful trends. They say that the structure and sanitation of school buildings and facilities are improving; that more efforts are being made to procure health and dental examinations and services; that services of the school and health agencies are being coordinated; that health teaching is improving in both elementary and secondary schools; that schools are employing more qualified school nurses; that school and community are cooperating to secure better conditions everywhere. They also point out the growing recognition of school health as an integral part of the school program; the preparation of materials useful in teaching health; and the marked im-

provement in height, weight, and physical condition of children.

Health of teachers. Many countries require periodic health examinations for teachers, especially examinations for tuberculosis. In several, teachers may have X-ray examinations at the same time the children do. The granting of sick leave is common, and in many countries the amount is generous. The time allowed varies considerably, from 10 days to 18 months. Full pay is usually granted for a certain period, then part pay for a further period. Insurance systems are in operation in at least 5 countries. Maternity leave of 2 to 4 months is granted under free medical plans in several countries.

In some countries teachers can retire with pension because of disability or age. Superannuation is common

World Confederation of Organizations of the Teaching Profession

"shall be protected from practices which may foster racial, religious and any other form of discrimination."

II. Noting from our members' reports the gross inequalities and inadequacies in various national programs for ensuring these rights for healthful living, and recognizing the national and international responsibilities in guaranteeing the rights of the children, we address an urgent appeal to all nations and international bodies concerned to do all that it is possible to ensure to all children in all countries the fundamental rights declared above. We also urge teachers and teachers' organizations and all associated with schools to assume their full share of these responsibilities.

(a) Classes should be small enough to permit the teacher to give adequate attention to each child. We believe that healthful living for both pupils and teachers is best obtained in classes of a reasonable size.

(b) The age and ability of the child should be considered in making homework assignments, as excessive homework is injurious to the health of the child.

(c) In arranging the school day and the school year, attention should be given to the age and ability of children and the avoidance of undue fatigue.

(d) Children should not be subjected to pressure beyond their capacity. This is especially the case in regard to preparation for examination. Hence it is recommended that a child's achievement should be measured by his total effort during the year and not by a single test at the end of the year, and that compulsory external written examinations which serve no purpose in evaluation or selection for further education and to which children are subjected should be discouraged.

HEALTH SERVICES

A complete and free medical service should be available to every school child and should include periodic medical and dental inspection to which the child's parents may be invited; access to medical and dental clinics for treatment; ample provision for children suffering from diseases to receive attention; arrangement for diagnosis and treatment; provision for the care and education of handicapped children. School meals should be established to give an adequate and balanced meal to all

children who need it. The organization of such services shall be the concern of the education authority, but their administration in the schools should be the responsibility of headmaster or headmistress or other appropriate authority.

TEACHERS' HEALTH

The Assembly urges that positive steps be taken in all countries to safeguard and improve the physical and mental health of the teacher by:

(a) Putting at the disposal of teaching personnel in school institutions the means to assure constant health and cleanliness;

(b) Making available to all teachers adequate medical facilities for the care and protection of their health;

(c) Granting some form of sabbatical leave from school duties;

(d) A generous scheme of retirement pensions, with adequate provision for widows', orphans' and dependents' pensions;

(e) Adequate provision for—

(i) sick leave with pay;

(ii) special leave with pay in the case of prolonged illness requiring special treatment such as tuberculosis;

(iii) maternity leave in accordance with the ILO conventions;

(iv) benefits of retirement on grounds of age or disability.

at 55 years in some countries; after 30 years of service in others, with the amount of pension proportionately reduced for less than 30 years.

Training of teachers. Two-thirds of the countries reporting say their teachers are insufficiently prepared to teach health to children. Most of these countries provide some preservice opportunities, ranging from an occasional lecture by a specialist to regularly organized courses. The latter, however, are rare; those offered are either in health and physical education combined or in health education alone. Several countries are making real efforts to improve the effectiveness of the preservice education; some say they especially need specialists to teach teachers.

Once teachers are on the job, they still must learn and grow; how to help them seems a worldwide problem.

THE ASSEMBLY discussed its theme in both large and small groups. Simultaneous interpretation made it possible for all delegates to participate actively. Interest ran high and all teachers showed signs of their deep concern. They generally agreed that although the health of children is primarily the responsibility of the home, the school shares in this responsibility; and they underlined the desirability of close cooperation among teachers' organizations and all other groups interested in health.

Even though there were differences in belief, practices, opportunities, and hopes, there was open-minded and sincere discussion. The scope and quality of the resolutions, printed above, attest to the seriousness with which the participants, as official delegates of their national teacher organizations, accepted their responsibilities.

Federal financial support for education



Mr. Munse is assistant specialist in the School Finance Section, Office of Education. He and Edna D. Booher, research assistant

in the Section, are authors of Federal Funds for Education, 1958-59 and 1959-60, fifteenth in the series of Office reports on this subject (now in press). Mr. Munse bases his article on findings in the current survey.

IN THE 1958-59 school year, the Federal Government spent more than \$2.4 billion for 92 broadly defined educational programs administered by 20 different Federal departments and agencies. These funds provided for a wide variety of educational services and functions, from school lunches to the operation of school systems on certain Federal installations, and for educational programs at all levels, from nurseries on through graduate schools. They include all Federal programs in any way related to educational institutions or instructional services except those in or on Federal facilities offering inservice training to employees of the Federal Government.

The amount of Federal funds for education available through the various agencies in alternate years from 1950-51 through 1958-59 is shown in the table. In 1958-59 four agencies—the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Veterans Administration, Department of Agriculture, and Department of Defense—account for 84 percent of the total \$2.4 billion.

Although they are not separately identifiable in the table, amounts for a small number of special programs account for the high concentration of funds in these four agencies:

Department of Health, Education, and Welfare: \$354 million for Office of Education programs

Federal funds for education, alternate school years, 1950-51 to 1958-59, by administering agency
[In thousands of dollars]

Department or agency	1950-51	1952-53	1954-55	1956-57	1958-59
Total.....	\$2,511,829	\$1,416,898	\$1,571,535	\$1,968,246	\$2,413,186
Total excluding Veterans Administration...	391,613	691,327	861,451	1,154,291	1,811,150
Department of Health, Education, and Welfare....	111,370	310,575	392,240	457,277	737,864
Department of Agriculture.....	171,154	195,693	245,071	398,399	383,556
Department of Commerce.....	5,292	4,024	2,632	2,884	3,493
Department of Defense.....	25,507	40,714	47,955	69,569	300,877
Department of the Interior.....	45,834	58,834	80,263	90,794	113,577
Department of Justice.....	389	422	461	530	1,416
Department of Labor.....	3,927	5,188	5,236	5,940	10,941
Department of State.....		37,402	40,100	47,751	57,811
Department of the Treasury.....	1,800	2,565	2,506	3,350	5,212
Atomic Energy Commission.....	18,908	25,221	24,479	30,717	51,047
Canal Zone.....	2,300	2,635	2,910	3,647	5,019
District of Columbia.....	2,728	2,310	5,063	5,077	7,742
Federal Aviation Authority.....	101	348	266	461	1,036
Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation.....				7	14
Library of Congress.....	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,067	1,368
National Aeronautics and Space Administration...	710	618	675	580	5,023
National Science Foundation.....		3,220	10,109	34,952	122,820
Office of Civil and Defense Mobilization.....				707	1,741
Tennessee Valley Authority.....	593	557	485	582	593
Veterans Administration.....	2,120,216	725,572	710,084	813,955	602,036

and \$292 million (in acquisition cost of Federal surplus property) for the Division of Surplus Property Utilization.

Veterans Administration: \$602 million for rehabilitation, education, and training of veterans.

Department of Agriculture: \$276 million for school-lunch and school-milk programs.

Department of Defense: \$207 million for research and development projects at institutions of higher education.

Throughout this period the Federal Government has steadily increased its support for education, from a total of \$1.4 billion in 1952-53 to \$2.4 billion in 1958-59. And not only has the Government increased its total contribution but year by year it has increased the amounts made available to all departments and agencies, with the major exception of the Veterans Administration and the minor exception of the Department of Commerce. If the funds for the Veterans Administration programs are deducted from the yearly totals for all other agencies, the total for all other programs in 1958-59 is 4.6 times larger than the total for 1950-51.

There are three separate factors in these increases: (1) the established programs have grown; (2) new programs have been established by legislative acts; and (3) agencies are reporting to the Office of Education programs they had not previously reported.

By analyzing the separate programs for the reporting year 1956-57 and 1958-59, we can account for the total increase of \$657 million, exclusive of funds for the Veterans Administration:

\$369 million, or 56.2 percent, represents the amount of growth for established programs

\$208 million, or 31.7 percent, represents the amount for programs that are not new but had not been previously reported

\$80 million, or 12.1 percent, represents the amount for new programs.

If programs for other 2-year periods were similarly analyzed, these same factors might be identified but the

amounts and percentages would be different.

Certainly there has been a pattern of increased Federal support of education: Established programs have grown and new programs have been established. However, a significant portion of the total increase is for programs which are not new but which had not been reported to the Office prior to 1958-59.



Material for this department is prepared in the School Administration Branch, Division of State and Local School Systems, by H. D. Evans, Jr. Contributors are the specialists in the Branch—this month, Albert L. Alford, John L. Cameron, Elmer C. Deering, Charles O. Fitzwater, Eugene P. McLoone, James P. Steffenson, and James L. Taylor.

Task forces on college administration. This year the University Council for Educational Administration, an organization of universities offering doctoral programs in educational administration (see *School Life*, October 1959, p. 6), is organizing eight task forces to study particular problems. Four will concentrate on various aspects of college preparatory programs; four, on research in communication, staff organization and utilization, selection of administrators, and the school as a political institution. Some of the groups have already begun work, and the one studying communication has held three meetings.

★ ★ ★

"Reorganization of reorganization." In 1954, Iowa had 4,417 school districts.

By July 1960, the number had been reduced by one-third, to 1,575. Some of the cut was in districts with 4-year high schools: In 1954 there were 819; in 1960 the number was down to 562.

More than half the reorganization during the 1959-60 school year was "reorganization of reorganizations"; in other words, districts recently formed were merged into still larger districts.

Despite these gains, officials in the State department of public instruction and Iowa citizens are not letting up on their efforts. John G. Schultz, reorganization consultant in the State department, predicts that by next summer the 1,575 districts will be reduced to 1,000 or fewer.

★ ★ ★

State scholarships. Both financial and ideological proposals are being heard in Nebraska as means of solving the teacher shortage. At a fall meeting of the Nebraska State Board of Education, Freeman Decker, State commissioner of education, proposed, as one means, a State scholarship program for prospective teachers. The proposed program would be similar to the scholarship program in Virginia, which pro-

vides each prospective teacher with \$350 for each college year, and proportionately smaller amounts for summer school. The teacher would be required to teach in the State 1 year for each year of education the State had subsidized, or pay back the scholarship at 3 percent interest. Commissioner Decker's proposal will be discussed at the next session of the Nebraska Legislature.

Steven Watkins, superintendent of the Lincoln, Nebr., schools, who spoke out in favor of the scholarship program, warned that, in itself, it would not solve the State's teacher shortage. We should begin farther back—in the school—he says, for "This involves such things as the attitudes of the community for teachers and education, salary, good teaching materials, and working conditions." Mr. Watkins stressed that, in addition to a scholarship program, general improvement was needed to meet the increasing competition for qualified teachers.

Facilities for exceptional children. The staff of the Office of Education's School Housing Section spent a recent afternoon discussing school facilities for exceptional children, that is, children who are gifted, retarded, or physically handicapped. Harold M. Williams, specialist in the education of exceptional children, told the group about some of the programs and trends in his field that might be considered in planning school housing:

◆ The general feeling today is that exceptional children should be instructed in their own communities whenever possible. This seems to be what is happening in most of the 3,500 school districts that have programs of special education.

◆ Many features of modern school design, such as one-story buildings, ramps, rooms for resting, facilities for running water in each classroom, multipurpose rooms, and flexible seating, are particularly beneficial.

◆ The trend is toward normal-looking classrooms and away from the use of special desks, elaborate lighting, and other distinctive equipment. Recent improvements in standard facilities have made special equipment unnecessary in many cases.

Only 15 cents per dollar. Educational expenditures, as classified by the Bureau of the Census, amounted to only 2 cents of each Federal tax dollar expended for all purposes in fiscal year 1959, 31 cents of each State dollar, and 45 cents of each local tax dollar. Of all government dollars—Federal, State, and local—an average of 15 cents was spent on education.

Federal payments to State and local governments for all purposes amounted to \$6,377 million in fiscal year 1959, which represents 14 cents of each dollar available to State and local governments. The 1959 percentage is an alltime high for the years in which Census has collected data. The previous high was in 1934, when 13 cents of each dollar available to State and local governments came from Federal sources. In the 1950's, about 10 cents of each dollar came from Federal sources.

Getting taxes from new property. In growing suburban communities, new property is sometimes slow to get on the assessment rolls, and the lag complicates the problem of getting money for the public schools. In some places, it may be as long as 2 years before a new owner has to pay taxes, but in the meantime his children are attending a tax-supported school.

The obvious solution—basic changes in property tax administration—may be a difficult process, requiring a constitutional amendment in some States. In some States, among them Pennsylvania, municipalities and school districts are finding relief from this situation in a deed transfer tax. This tax, which in Pennsylvania is usually 1 percent of the

value of the property, is imposed at the time the transfer is made. Proponents of the tax consider it well suited to the needs of a rapidly expanding suburb, for it provides revenue before new homes start to produce property tax revenues.

AASPA. Programs for the recruitment, selection, development, and promotion of professional educators were discussed at the annual meeting, in October, of the American Association of School Personnel Administrators. The group, meeting in Miami with the Dade County Schools as host, also gave considerable attention to methods of predicting success and evaluating performance of teachers, supervisors, and administrators.

The final session was devoted to a committee report on the use of *Standards for School Personnel Administration*,* a publication developed by the AASPA last year to assist school systems wishing to study their personnel functions, either through self-evaluation or through an evaluation team. The reporting committee, which had already tried out the *Standards* in a large school system, had recommendations and suggestions for AASPA members who might wish to use the *Standards* in studying their own schools.

Doings in Delaware. A plumber who does work in a local public school in Delaware gets paid by the State treasurer. Using machines in the State's electronic data-processing center, the State department of public instruction handles the financial accounts for every elementary and secondary school in the State. All checks—whether for teachers salaries, school furniture, light and power, or a local plumber's bill—are made out by the State.

Delaware has the highest percentage of State support in the Nation: about 88

*Copies are available for \$1 each from C. S. Robinson, secretary-treasurer, AASPA, Board of Education Building, Kansas City, Mo.

percent of the funds for operating local schools come from the State. Local tax collections, which make up the remaining 12 percent, are transmitted directly to the State. Electronic machines keep separate accounts for each local public school district, crediting all funds received and subtracting the amount of all disbursements. If the machine is presented with a local voucher which would overdraw the local account, the machine rejects it. Every 6 months the State treasurer prepares summaries showing how much each district has spent.

The "random access" feature of the machines makes it possible for State officials to combine, correlate, or compare the items of financial information in an infinite number of ways. The new system also makes possible an almost immediate analysis of any information needed on cost per pupil or cost per item.

Conference in Toronto. "The Challenge of the Sixties" was the theme of the 34th Annual Conference of the National Council on Schoolhouse Construction held in Toronto, Canada, Oct. 4-7, 1960. Prominent speakers included J. M. Chorlton of the Toronto Board of Education, Charles D. Gibson of the California State Department of Education, Marcus Long of the University of Toronto, the Hon. J. P. Robarts, Minister of Education for the Province of Ontario, and Archibald B. Shaw, editor of *Overview*.

Representatives from the Office of Education's School Housing Section met with a committee of Council members to discuss the establishment within the Office of a clearinghouse of research informational material on school facilities. Committee members felt that such a service was greatly needed, heartily endorsed the proposal, and pledged the full cooperation and support of the Council.

The Council has decided to revise by 1962 its widely used *Guide for Planning*

Average net interest cost of new bond sales for public school purposes, September 1959-September 1960, by Moody ratings

This summary is based on sales reported by the Investment Bankers' Association. About 75 percent of the sales had a Moody rating.

Period	AAA	AA	A	BAA	BA	All rated bonds
1959-60						
September.....	3.88	3.94	4.00	4.42	4.75	4.07
October.....	3.03	3.38	3.75	4.21	3.85
November.....	3.06	3.43	3.79	4.10	4.75	3.71
December.....	3.80	3.91	4.22	3.94
January.....	3.29	3.59	4.03	4.39	4.71	3.80
February.....	3.60	3.71	4.09	4.48	3.86
March.....	*4.02	3.40	3.64	4.19	4.58	3.79
April.....	3.18	3.63	3.79	4.24	4.50	3.83
May.....	3.24	3.31	3.77	4.13	4.51	3.80
June.....	3.02	3.66	3.62	4.12	4.30	3.73
1959-60 average.....	3.26	3.63	3.78	4.21	4.55	3.84
1960-61						
July.....	3.08	3.37	3.72	4.00	4.47	3.78
August.....	2.81	3.01	3.47	3.73	4.23	3.47
September.....	2.66	3.56	3.48	3.80	4.41	3.51

*All are revenue bonds of school building authorities, which are usually at least 0.5 percent higher than tax obligation bonds.

School Plants and a revision committee has been named.

New officers elected at the Toronto meeting included Arnold C. Tjomsland, of Washington State University, president; James L. Taylor, of the U.S. Office of Education, vice president; Floyd G. Parker, of Michigan State University, secretary-treasurer; and A. B. Grimes, of the Iowa State Department of Education, executive committee member.

The 1961 convention will be held in Atlanta, Ga.

Postscript from New Jersey. S. Herbert Starkey, director of research in the New Jersey Education Association, has reminded us that our October *Ad Minutes* report, "Can School Tax Rates Be Compared?" should have listed New Jersey as one of the States reporting studies of mileage rates based on true

value of property. Our report listed 4 States (Kentucky, New York, Oregon, Wisconsin) that make such studies, and mentioned that the 24 States now maintaining records of both true value and assessed value of taxable property might not find this kind of study particularly difficult.

Mr. Starkey sent along a copy of the 1960 edition of the New Jersey Education Association's research bulletin, *Basic Statistical Data of New Jersey School Districts*, which shows an upward trend in the State's average full property tax rates:

Year:	School property taxes	Total property taxes
1955.....	\$0.95	\$2.20
1956.....	1.13	2.59
1957.....	1.23	2.70
1958.....	1.30	2.77
1959.....	1.37	2.84
1960.....	1.43	2.91

The 23d International Conference on Public Education

The annual International Conference on Public Education is jointly sponsored by the International Bureau of Education (IBE) and the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO). IBE and UNESCO jointly determine conference procedure and topics to be discussed and publish the proceedings and recommendations.

IBE, an intergovernmental organization with headquarters in Geneva, was organized in 1925. It serves as a clearinghouse of educational information and research, maintains a library of more than 100,000 volumes and a permanent exhibition on education, and publishes a quarterly bulletin. With UNESCO it publishes the International Yearbook of Education and other reports and studies.

The United States has participated in the IBE-UNESCO conference for many years. It became a member of IBE in 1958.

Conference procedures and programs vary slightly from year to year: each member nation submits a report of its progress in education during the year, and delegates ask questions about the reports, discuss the special topics assigned, and draft recommendations, one for each of the year's special topics. IBE-UNESCO sends the recommendations adopted to the ministries of education in all the member countries.

At the 1960 Conference the United States was represented by Samuel M. Brownell, superintendent of schools, Detroit; Leo P. Black, assistant commissioner in charge of instruction, Colorado State Department of Education; and the authors. Carroll B. Hanson, chief, Publications Services, Office of Education, in Geneva to attend the International Education Editors Conference, gave his assistance to the delegation.

DELEGATES from 78 countries and official observers from 4 government and 6 nongovernment agencies met in Geneva, July 6-15, for the 23d International Conference on Public Education. In a spirit of fellowship, unmarred by controversy of any kind, the delegates exchanged ideas, discussed the national reports on progress in education during the year, and considered the two special topics on the agenda—curriculums and syllabuses for secondary education and the education of the mentally retarded.

IBE-UNESCO officials had good reasons for selecting these two topics. In selecting the secondary curriculum, they were influenced by these considerations:

¶ The intensive development of secondary education calls for changes in curriculums and syllabuses in the light of national and international needs.

¶ More than half of the member countries are revising or preparing to revise their curriculums.

¶ General secondary education, formerly the privilege of the minority in many countries, is now being made available to large numbers of boys and girls differing in intellectual ability, social background, and future occupation.

¶ Secondary education should not be limited to intellectual, moral, and esthetic fields but should also prepare boys and girls for useful work.

¶ The increase in knowledge and progress in science and technology call for new methods and new content.

And in choosing special education of the mentally deficient for study, IBE-UNESCO were again influenced by certain considerations, among them these:

¶ In no part of the world is the problem fully met; in some parts the schools are making no provision for it.

¶ Progress in medicine, child psychology, and remedial education makes it possible to identify and educate the mentally retarded.

¶ Both humane and economic considerations require society to prepare such children, insofar as possible, for useful and satisfying lives.

At the opening session this year Alfred Borel, chairman of the IBE Executive Committee, summarized the work to be done and announced the nominations for chairman and vice chairmen. The head of the Moroccan delegation was elected chairman; vice chairmen were elected from

The authors are the two Office of Education staff members who were part of the U.S. delegation to the International Conference on Education they describe here. Dr. Mackie is chief of the Services for Exceptional Children and Youth Section, and Dr. Tandler is assistant director of the International Educational Relations Branch and specialist for international organizations. Dr. Tandler has attended the Geneva Conferences for the past 5 years and has been a continuing link with previous conferences.

Argentina, Cambodia, Israel, Italy, the Russian Soviet Federated Socialist Republic, and the United States.

The afternoon sessions and all or part of the morning sessions were spent in responding to questions about reports of the various countries on their progress in public education during 1959-60. The conferees were allowed an hour for questioning each reporting delegation, and each delegation was limited to one question per report.

Fifty-seven countries presented reports on the progress of public education in their countries during 1959-60, ranging from 2 mimeographed sheets in one language to 50 printed pages in three languages. The U.S. report was printed in English and mimeographed in French, Spanish, and Russian. In the past 3 years the United States has submitted its report in four languages; to date it is the only non-Spanish-speaking country presenting its report in Spanish and the only country outside the Soviet bloc presenting a report in Russian—a fact commented on appreciatively in the plenary session.

Representatives of 15 countries asked questions on the U.S. report, most of them on these topics: Inservice training of teachers; low-cost school housing; aid to the gifted; emphasis on practical knowledge and manual skills; vocational education; and adult education conceived of as a broad education continuing through a lifetime, not just as the A-B-C's or literacy education or education for the worker. This last subject came up often.

Dr. Brownell, chairman of the U.S. delegation, responded to all questions on the U.S. report with assurance, precision, and brevity—qualities that won him the acclaim of the whole Conference.

Several discussions were devoted to each of the two special topics: Preparation and issuing of general secondary school curriculums and the organization of special education for mentally deficient children. They culminated in recommendations Nos. 50 and 51. (The recommendations have been numbered consecutively from year to year, beginning in 1934.)

In 1959, IBE, in preparing for the Conference, circulated among participating countries a questionnaire covering the general character of the secondary curriculum, persons responsible for making it, and the place of subjects in the curriculum. The United States and nearly all other member countries responded. Office of Education staff members drafted the U.S. response to the questionnaire. (Results of the inquiry are summarized in vol. 216 of joint IBE-UNESCO publications.)

Using the responses, IBE staff drafted a preliminary recommendation on general secondary school curriculums. At the Conference a committee examined this draft, suggested changes in its 51 items, and submitted 176 amendments. Our delegation proposed several amendments,

although no item in the preliminary draft was wholly unacceptable to us.

From this mass of material—preliminary draft, amendments, and suggested changes—the drafting committee for recommendation No. 50 drew up a statement for the consideration of the conference. Countries represented on this committee were Byelorussian S.S.R., Ethiopia, France, Switzerland, the United Kingdom, the United States, and Vietnam.

In his work on the drafting committee Dr. Black found it necessary to stand resolutely for no compromise on a few substantive issues: Freedom of choice, adaptation of materials to individual and local needs, necessity for continuing evaluation, importance of experimentation and research, inclusion of suggested methods in syllabuses, and participation of teachers and laymen in preparing curriculums.

The curriculums and syllabuses used in most countries correspond to U.S. courses of study or programs of studies. There is, however, a wide difference in the way in which countries use them: Printed curriculums and syllabuses issued by educational authorities of central governments determine to a great extent all school programs; in the United States courses of study and instructional guides are commonly prepared and issued by local and State agencies, are usually not compulsory, and are always adapted by local school districts to their own use.

On a few points it was impossible to draft statements that would apply both to schools under a centralized system and to schools under a decentralized system. This means that some statements in recommendation No. 50 will offer little or no leadership for U.S. education.

The Conference succeeded in emphasizing these points: The upward extension of general secondary education for all, close articulation of units within the school system, development of moral and esthetic values, and balance between general and vocational education and between the several branches of general education. The U.S. made a proposal cautioning against determining curriculums primarily on the basis of what is needed to prepare students for certain examinations. But in this we yielded to the argument that for certain countries such a statement would work a hardship, especially for countries that prepare many students for admission to foreign universities.

In the belief that general secondary education should be based on a reasonable balance between the humanities and the sciences, the conference adopted recommendation No. 50 as a statement of principles and practical measures. The 43 items in it cover the preparation of curriculums, drafting and issuing procedures, application, and international aspects of curricular problems.

Just as it had in preparing for recommendation No. 50, IBE sent out a questionnaire on the education of the mentally retarded to more than 80 countries. It requested information on methods of detecting the mentally retarded, selecting those to be educated, compulsory schooling for them, structure of the special education system, teaching methods and staff, postschool care, measures to be considered in the next few years, and international assistance.

From the information the questionnaire brought in, IBE staff prepared "Organization of Special Education for Mentally Deficient Children" (IBE-UNESCO publication No. 214). A preliminary draft of recommendation No. 51, on the organization of special education for the mentally deficient, became the working paper of the Conference committee, which was made up of one representative of each participating country.

The U.S., like the other delegations, presented a number of suggestions for substantive changes and submitted a number of amendments.

After some discussion the Conference committee decided not to try to settle on terms. Although committee members expressed some differences on such matters as methods of financing and emphasis on vocational training, harmony of understanding and a common purpose kept this committee moving together toward agreement on many items.

From the amendments, suggestions for change in the preliminary draft, and the material IBE-UNESCO had prepared, the drafting committee—composed of representatives from Canada, Belgium, Portugal, Thailand, The United Arab Republic, and the U.S.S.R.—prepared a new draft of recommendation No. 51. When it became available and before it was voted on, the U.S. requested eight further modifications, five of which were adopted.

After the delegates had expressed different theories on the organization of schools, selection of pupils, postschool adjustment, and other subjects, they dedicated themselves to the larger worldwide needs of children by emphasizing these points in recommendation No. 51:

1. Retarded children should be carefully identified, and carefully selected for enrollment.

2. Educational facilities should be provided according to the resources of the country and the needs of the individual child.

3. Teachers and inspectors should be well qualified in their characteristics and professional preparation.

4. Ministries of education have important functions to carry out in all areas of special education and have a responsibility for gathering facts and conducting studies.

Through the discussions, delegates emphasized the respectability and importance of education for manual as well as intellectual activities. Arab leaders pointed

out that the two activities could not be separated. Certainly it is true that, as respect for manual and intellectual activities and for all people is increased and that as the various abilities of men are developed, the door of opportunity will be opened to the mentally retarded in countries where their social value has been very low. Through such new social acceptance, opportunity for education and employment will be multiplied many times. This new attitude may be one of the most significant developments in special education in recent years.

Early in the meeting, specialists in special education began to meet informally to exchange ideas on topics they had heretofore discussed only through publications or correspondence. In talking with other specialists, we realized how much a part of U.S. education special education is and that it is becoming a part of school education in other countries. Both the countries just beginning programs and the countries with no programs at all expressed an understanding of the possibilities of educating the mentally retarded. All recognized that what specialists learn about the education of the extremes—the retarded and the gifted—will eventually contribute to the education of those in the middle groups.

We hope that out of these interchanges, formal and informal, a network of communication will be developed around the world, for such personal association and communication cannot fail to extend and improve education for the mentally retarded.

As in other years, the United States participated in other Conference activities—the showing of films and exhibiting of educational materials.

This year our delegation invited the other delegates to a showing of two films, both made in Detroit. Dr. Brownell introduced the films, one on physical education activities in an elementary school and the other on the program of the Guyton Elementary School. Between films there was time for questions and discussion of U.S. education.

The United States is one of the 27 nations currently maintaining educational exhibits in the Palais Wilson, showing materials of all kinds—examples of children's work, textbooks, and periodicals. About 5,000 persons see these exhibits during the year they are displayed, and the number is growing. Since an exhibit conveys an image of a country, most countries put considerable effort and money into their exhibits.

The United States 1960 exhibit was built around the three themes of the Conference: The status of U.S. education, the secondary school curriculums, and education of mentally retarded children. It included photographs of the activities of a comprehensive high school and copies of city and State courses of study.

How much good this year's recommendations and other

activities will do in the public schools around the world, no one can now measure. But we have good reason to believe that their cumulative effect is good. To anyone who regularly attends these conferences the influence of the Conference and the recommendations is happily plain. Time and again, as they report on the progress made in

their own countries, delegates pay tribute to the sanction the recommendations of the past have carried.

Recommendations No. 50 and 51 are reprinted in *Information on Education Around the World*, OE 1403-48. Copies are free from Publications Inquiry Unit, U.S. Office of Education, Washington 25, D.C.

Research reports available on library loan

As of November, at least sixty of the final reports of projects done under the Office of Education's cooperative research program were available to borrowers in 58 libraries across the country, thanks to arrangements made by the Library of Congress. In the October issue of SL we listed the libraries; in the November issue we listed about half of the reports then available; here we list the others. In the months to come, as more reports find their way to the lending shelf, we will announce them.

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Education Directory, 1960-1961, Part 3, Higher Education.

By Theresa Birch Wilkins, 1960, 209 pp., 75 cents (OE-50000-61).

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